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Guido Camps, Ralf Veit, Monica Mars, Cees de Graaf, Paul AM. Smeets



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Title: Just add water: effects of added gastric distention by water on gastric emptying and satiety related brain activity

Authors: Guido Camps^a, Ralf Veit^{b,c}, Monica Mars^a, Cees de Graaf^a, Paul AM Smeets^{a,d}

^a Division of Human Nutrition, Wageningen University & Research, P.O. Box 8129, 6700 EV Wageningen, The Netherlands

^b Institute for Diabetes Research and Metabolic Diseases of the Helmholtz Center Munich at the University of Tübingen, Otfried-Müller-Str. 10. 72076 Tübingen, Germany

^c Institute of Medical Psychology and Behavioral Neurobiology, University of Tübingen, Otfried-Müller-Str. 47, 72076 Tübingen, Germany

^d Image Sciences Institute, University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht University, Heidelberglaan 100, 3584 CX Utrecht, The Netherlands

Corresponding author:

Guido Camps, Postbus 8129, 6700EV Wageningen, The Netherlands, +31-317-485393,
guido.camps@wur.nl

Names for PubMed indexing: Camps, Veit, Mars, de Graaf, Smeets

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Running head: Brain activation by nutrient and water induced gastric distention

Trial registration: this study was registered with the Dutch Trial Registry under number NTR5507. (<http://www.trialregister.nl/trialreg/admin/rctview.asp?TC=5507>)

1 **Abstract**

2 **Background:** Gastric distention contributes to meal termination. There is little research on
3 the neural correlates of gastric distention by food. To date, neural measures have not been
4 obtained concurrently with measurements of gastric distention.

5 **Objectives:** 1) To study how offering a small versus a large water load following a
6 standardized nutrient load affects gastric distention over time. 2) To assess associations
7 between satiety experiences and brain activity and the degree of gastric distention.

8 **Method:** 19 healthy males (age 22.2 ± 2.5 y, BMI 21.8 ± 1.5 kg/m²) participated in a
9 randomized crossover study with two treatments: ingestion of a 500-kcal 150-mL liquid meal
10 shake followed by a low (LV, 50 mL) or a high volume (HV, 350 mL) water load. At baseline
11 and three times after ingestion satiety was scored, MRI scans were made to determine total
12 gastric content volume (TGV) and functional MRI scans were made to measure cerebral
13 blood flow (CBF).

14 **Results:** TGV was significantly higher for HV compared to LV at all time points ($p < 0.001$)
15 with relative differences between HV and LV of 292 ± 37 mL after ingestion, 182 ± 83 mL at
16 $t=15$ min and 62 ± 57 mL at $t=35$ min. Hunger decreased ($p = 0.023$) and fullness increased (p
17 $= 0.030$) significantly more for HV compared to LV. Ingestion increased CBF in the inferior
18 frontal gyrus and the anterior insula, but there were no differences between treatments. There
19 were no significant correlations between appetite ratings and CBF values.

20 **Conclusion:** Performing concurrent gastric MRI and CBF measurements can be used to
21 investigate neural correlates of gastric distention. Increased distention did not induce
22 significantly greater brain activation. Future research should further examine the role of the
23 inferior frontal gyrus in satiety.

24 **Key words:** gastric distention, gastric MRI, perfusion MRI, gastric emptying, distention,
25 fullness

26

27 **Abbreviations:** CBF, cerebral blood flow; MRI, Magnetic Resonance Imaging; TGV, total
28 gastric volume;

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30 **Introduction**

31 In the effort to better prevent obesity, one strategy may be to limit caloric intake. To this end
32 we could strive to promote earlier meal termination (satiation) (de Graaf & Kok, 2010).

33 Satiation can be increased by increased stomach distention (Geliebter, Westreich, & Gage,
34 1988). When the stomach is distended with a water filled intragastric balloon meal intake is
35 reduced (Saber et al., 2017). This increase in satiation was investigated by Wang et al., who
36 aimed to find neural correlates of gastric distention using fMRI by inflating and deflating an
37 intragastric balloon with water (G. J. Wang et al., 2008). They observed that distention
38 induced brain activation in satiety related brain areas, such as the amygdala and insula.

39
40 Spetter et al. showed differences in brain activation and hormone responses between gastric
41 infusion and ingestion (i.e., gastric plus oro-sensory stimulation) of the same 500-mL nutrient
42 load (Maartje S. Spetter, de Graaf, Mars, Viergever, & Smeets, 2014; M. S. Spetter, Mars,
43 Viergever, de Graaf, & Smeets, 2014). Normal ingestion showed increased activity in the
44 thalamus, amygdala, putamen and precuneus compared to matched gastric infusion of the
45 same load. However, gastric emptying was not assessed. Insight in relative gastric distention
46 would provide more detailed information on the associated stomach distention and the rate of
47 gastric emptying, the contribution of which to neural activation is hitherto unknown.

48
49 Gastric distention with a balloon and naso-gastric infusion are suitable tools to investigate
50 orosensory and gastric contributions to satiation. However, they are not very naturalistic and
51 the results obtained with such approaches may have limited ecological validity. Also, such
52 approaches do not provide ways to enhance satiation and thereby limit energy intake.

53 Therefore, researchers have used food manipulations to increase gastric distention such as the
54 incorporation of air (Osterholt, Roe, & Rolls, 2007), water (Rolls, Bell, & Thorwart, 1999)

55 and the addition of gelling fibers (Hoad et al., 2004). However, this introduces a possible
56 confounder, as incorporated air or water inevitably affect the texture of the test food and the
57 eating speed, both of which have been shown to affect satiation (de Wijk, Zijlstra, Mars, de
58 Graaf, & Prinz, 2008; Miquel-Kergoat, Azais-Braesco, Burton-Freeman, & Hetherington,
59 2015; Weijzen, Smeets, & de Graaf, 2009; Wijlens, Erkner, Mars, & de Graaf, 2015; Zhu,
60 Hsu, & Hollis, 2013a, 2013b; Zijlstra, De Wijk, Mars, Stafleu, & De Graaf, 2009).

61
62 The presence of calories slows gastric emptying (Camps, Mars, De Graaf, & Smeets, 2016a;
63 Marciani et al., 2001). Therefore, a possible way to control both orosensory exposure as well
64 as manipulate gastric distention would be to introduce a caloric load first, and then manipulate
65 gastric distention with water. Using water loads is not new: increased water consumption
66 during the day or with a meal has been shown to increase satiety (Daniels & Popkin, 2010;
67 Lappalainen, Mennen, Van Weert, & Mykkanen, 1993; Stookey, Constant, Popkin, &
68 Gardner, 2008). However, the method used in the current paper is more specific, that is the
69 caloric load is ingested first, allowing the subsequently added water to increase stomach
70 distention. A benefit of this approach would be that the eating speed and associated
71 orosensory experience is similar between conditions. Additionally, if – intragastrically - the
72 water remains separated from the nutrient load it would not change caloric density of the
73 nutrient dense liquid and only add pure distention. We hypothesise that water taken with a
74 meal may sieve from the stomach (Camps, Mars, de Graaf, & Smeets, 2016b; Marciani et al.,
75 2012), but this would still create added distention for some time.

76
77 The primary aim of this study was to assess what the effect is of offering a small versus a
78 large water load following a standardized meal on gastric distention over time. The secondary

79 aim was to examine associations between subjective appetite feelings, brain activity and
80 gastric distention.

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83 **Participants and Methods**

84

85 **Design**

86 Participants came to our facilities 2 times in a randomized crossover design. Each participant
87 was always scanned on the same time in the morning after an overnight fast. Participants were
88 offered a standardized liquid meal followed by either a small (50 mL, LV) or a large (350 mL,
89 HV) water load in a random and balanced order.

90

91 **Participants**

92 Nineteen healthy males (age 22.6 ± 2.4 y, BMI 22.6 ± 1.8 kg/m²) participated. They were
93 recruited by website and flyers around the campus of Wageningen University. A flowchart of
94 the study can be found in **Supplemental Figure 1**. Inclusion criteria were: being male, aged
95 between 18 and 35 y, having a BMI between 18 and 25 kg/m², being of self-reported good
96 general health, willing to comply with study procedures, willing to be informed of incidental
97 findings. Exclusion criteria were: unexplained weight loss or gain of >5 kg in the last two
98 months, oversensitivity to any of the food items used in the experiment, any reported
99 pathologies relating to the gastrointestinal tract which might influence results, use of any
100 medications which may influence gastrointestinal function, having any contraindications for
101 undergoing an MRI, not signing the informed consent form, and being employed or studying
102 at the Division of Human Nutrition at Wageningen University.

103 Potential participants filled out an inclusion questionnaire to screen for eligibility.

104 Subsequently, they attended a screening meeting that included measurement of weight and
105 height and explanation of the study procedures. During screening, potential participants
106 participated in a mock scanner trial to familiarize them with the scan procedures (Lueken,
107 Muehlhan, Evens, Wittchen, & Kirschbaum, 2012). Participants were unaware of the exact

108 aim of the study; they were only informed about the fact that we were investigating the
109 digestive system and brain activation.

110 The study procedures were approved by the Medical Ethical Committee of Wageningen
111 University and in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki (1975) as revised in 2013
112 (NL48059.081.14). The study was registered with the Dutch Trial Registry under number
113 NTR4573. Results from the HV condition were used in (Camps et al., 2016b).
114 Written informed consent was obtained from all participants.

115

116 **Treatments**

117 Both treatments consisted of a meal shake and a water load, offered in a paper cup. The
118 ingredients of the shake were 50 g cream (AH Basic, Albert Heijn B.V. Zaandam, the
119 Netherlands), 53 g dextrin-maltose (Fantomalt Nutricia®, Cuijk, the Netherlands), 8 g vanilla
120 sugar (Dr.Oetker®, Amersfoort, the Netherlands), 30 g whey powder (Whey Delicious
121 Vanilla, XXL Nutrition, Helmond, the Netherlands), and 100 mL water (**Table 1**). The
122 macronutrient composition of the shake resembled a mixed meal with 50% of the energy from
123 carbohydrates, 30% from fat and 20% from protein. The shake was mixed in a container with
124 an internal whisking ball for approximately 30 seconds. The shake was prepared about 15
125 minutes before intake, and offered at ~18 °C. It was consumed from a cup, all subjects
126 finished consumption within 40 sec. The subsequent water load was 50 mL for LV and 350
127 mL for HV. The water was ingested directly following the shake, which all subjects were able
128 to do within 30 seconds.

129

130 **Scan session procedures**

131 See **Figure 1** for an overview of the scan sessions. After arrival participants provided baseline
132 appetite ratings. Following this, a baseline scan for stomach content and a baseline perfusion

133 CBF scan of 5 minutes were performed. After this, participants exited the scanner and
134 consumed the shake, followed by the water load. After consumption, participants were
135 positioned in the scanner and stayed there for approximately 50 minutes. During this time we
136 performed gastric MRI scans and obtained appetite ratings at 2, 15 and 35 minutes post
137 ingestion. At 5, 18 and 40 minutes post ingestion we performed CBF scans with a duration of
138 5, 8 and 5 minutes, respectively. The MRI body coil and 32-channel head coil were
139 exchanged during the session as needed.

140

141 **Appetite ratings**

142 Subjective appetite ratings were given via the scanner intercom. Participants verbally scored
143 hunger, fullness, prospective consumption, desire to eat and thirst between 1 and 100 points
144 (Noble et al., 2005).

145

146 **Gastric volume**

147 Participants were scanned with the use of a 3-Tesla Siemens Verio (Siemens AG, Munich,
148 Germany) MRI scanner using a T₂-weighted spin echo sequence (HASTE, 24 6-mm slices,
149 2.4 mm gap, 1.19 x 1.19 mm in-plane resolution), with breath hold command on expiration to
150 fixate the position of the diaphragm and the stomach. The duration of one scan was
151 approximately 18 seconds. A custom segmentation tool created in MeVisLab (MeVis Medical
152 Solutions AG, Bremen, Germany) was used to manually delineate gastric content - excluding
153 air - on every slice (Kuijf, 2013). Gastric content volume on each time point was calculated
154 by multiplying surface area of gastric content per slice with slice thickness including gap
155 distance, summed over the total slices showing gastric content. The different layers within the
156 stomach were segmented separately and then summed to determine total gastric volume
157 (TGV) (**Figure 2**).

158

159 **Brain activity**160 *Data acquisition*

161 Cerebral blood flow (CBF) was measured with a 32-channel head coil using perfusion MRI
162 (Pollock et al., 2009) on the same scanner. Images were obtained with a PICORE Q2T ASL
163 sequence, using a frequency offset corrected inversion pulse and echo planar imaging readout
164 for acquisition. A total of 19 axial slices were acquired in ascending order. Each measurement
165 consisted of tag and control images with the following imaging parameters: inversion time
166 (TI), TI1 = 700 ms, TI2 = 1800 ms, repetition time = 2800 ms, echo time = 13 ms, in plane
167 resolution = 3×3 mm, field of view = 192×192 mm, and flip angle = 90° , with a slice
168 thickness of 5 mm. The first image of the series was used to estimate the equilibrium
169 magnetization of the blood (M0B) to allow for absolute Cerebral Blood Flow (CBF)
170 quantification. At 27 minutes post ingestion a high-resolution T₁-weighted anatomical image
171 was acquired (magnetization-prepared rapid gradient echo (MPRAGE), matrix size = $256 \times$
172 256 , 192 sagittal slices, $1 \times 1 \times 1$ mm isotropic voxels, TR = 1900 ms, TE = 2.26 ms, TI =
173 900 ms).

174

175 *Image processing*

176 Image processing was performed using functions from the ASLtbx (Z. Wang et al., 2008) in
177 conjunction with SPM8 (Wellcome Trust Centre for Neuroimaging, London, UK) similar to
178 Kullmann et al. (Kullmann et al., 2015). The tag and control ASL images were separately
179 motion corrected and a common mean image was created. Subsequently, the ASL images
180 were coregistered to the anatomical image and smoothed with a 3-dimensional isotropic
181 Gaussian kernel of 6 mm full-width at half-maximum.

182 Relative CBF maps were generated by subtracting the tag from the control images. The one
183 compartment model was used for absolute CBF quantification (Buxton et al., 1998; Wang et
184 al., 2003) using the following parameters: inversion efficiency (α)=0.95, water partition
185 coefficient (λ)=0.9 ml/g, T1 of arterial blood (T_{1a})=1684 ms. T1₂ was incrementally adjusted
186 per slice with 39.5 ms. The anatomical image was normalized using SPM8 unified
187 segmentation, and the resulting parameter file was used to normalize the CBF maps to MNI
188 space retaining $3 \times 3 \times 5$ mm resolution.

189

190 **Statistical analyses**

191 A Shapiro-Wilk test for normality was performed using SPSS, per time point per treatment on
192 the variables. The data did not significantly differ from a normal distribution. Post-ingestive
193 values were baseline corrected. A linear mixed model with treatment and time as fixed factors
194 and participant as a random factor was performed in SPSS (IBM, Armonk, USA) to test for
195 significant differences between treatments on satiety ratings and TGV. Post hoc Šidák
196 adjusted tests were performed to further examine the main effects in case of a significant
197 interaction. Significance level was set at a p-value of 0.05. Data are expressed as mean \pm SD
198 unless otherwise stated.

199

200 Whole-brain group level analyses were performed in SPM12 (Wellcome Trust Centre for
201 Neuroimaging, London, UK). To investigate CBF changes a full factorial analysis was
202 conducted including the factors treatment (LV, HV) and time (baseline, post ingestion, 15 and
203 35 min). The threshold for significance was set at a family wise error-corrected (FWE) peak
204 P-value = 0.05. In case of significant clusters, CBF values of the different anatomical areas
205 were extracted using the WFU PickAtlas (Maldjian, Laurienti, Kraft, & Burdette, 2003;
206 Tzourio-Mazoyer et al., 2002) and MarsBaR toolbox (Brett, Anton, Valabregue, & Poline,

207 2002) (marsbar.sourceforge.net). A second full factorial analysis in SPM was conducted with
208 the addition of TGV as a covariate.

209

210 The association between appetite ratings and extracted CBF values was tested by calculating
211 the Pearson correlation coefficient in SPSS.

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213 **Results**

214 *Satiety ratings*

215 Satiety and thirst ratings over time can be seen in **Figure 3**.

216 Hunger ratings significantly changed over time ($p = 0.008$) and there was a significant
217 suppressive effect on hunger by HV in comparison to LV ($p = 0.023$). Fullness ratings
218 significantly changed over time ($p = 0.030$) and fullness was significantly increased more by
219 HV ($p = 0.030$). Desire to eat ratings significantly changed over time ($p = 0.004$) and desire to
220 eat was significantly more suppressed by HV ($p = 0.003$). Prospective consumption ratings
221 significantly changed over time ($p = 0.001$) and prospective consumption ratings were
222 significantly more suppressed by HV ($p < 0.001$). Thirst ratings significantly changed over
223 time ($p = 0.003$) and thirst was significantly more suppressed by HV ($p < 0.001$).

224 There were no significant interaction effects for satiety ratings.

225

226 *Total gastric volume*

227 A graph of the TGV for both treatments can be seen in **Figure 4**. **Figure 5** shows TGV per
228 treatment, as well as differences in volume of the water and shake layers.

229 LV TGV was 251 ± 24 mL directly after ingestion, 209 ± 28 mL at $t = 15$ min and 166 ± 28 mL
230 at $t = 35$ min. HV TGV was 543 ± 37 mL directly after ingestion, 391 ± 82 mL at $t = 15$ min and
231 229 ± 50 mL at $t = 35$ min.

232 TGV was significantly changed over time ($p < 0.001$) and TGV was significantly higher for
233 HV ($p < 0.001$). There was a significant interaction between time and treatment for TGV ($p <$
234 0.001). Post hoc tests revealed TGV was significantly greater for HV compared to LV at all
235 three time points (all $p < 0.001$). Differences between HV and LV were 292 ± 37 mL directly
236 after ingestion, and of 182 ± 83 mL at $t=15$ min and 62 ± 57 mL at $t=35$ min.

237

238 *Brain activation*

239 An overview of significant clusters can be found in **Table 2**. There was no significant main
240 effect of treatment on brain activation. There was, however, a significant main effect of time
241 in the opercular part of the left inferior frontal gyrus (MNI (-57, 17, 22), $Z = 5.49$, $k = 938$,
242 $P_{\text{fwe}} = 0.001$). This cluster extended into the triangular and orbital parts of the inferior frontal
243 gyrus. There was a contra-lateral cluster in the triangular part of the right inferior frontal
244 gyrus (MNI (54, 29, 22), $Z = 4.81$, $k = 319$, $P_{\text{fwe}} < 0.001$). This cluster extended into the right
245 middle frontal gyrus and the insula.

246 There was no significant interaction between time and treatment.

247

248 There were no significant correlations between appetite ratings and CBF values. There were
249 no significant correlations between TGV and CBF values.

250 **Discussion**

251 *Main results*

252 We examined how offering a small versus a large water load following a standardized meal
253 affects gastric distention over time. Gastric MRI data show that TGV was significantly larger
254 for HV over the course of the measurement period. In addition, appetite was suppressed more
255 for HV than for LV. CBF increased over time in parts of the bilateral inferior frontal gyrus
256 and adjacent insula. However, differences between treatments were not significant, although
257 HV tended to increase brain activity at several time points compared to LV.

258
259 Our work shows that it is possible to concurrently measure both gastric volume and brain
260 activity. By changing the MRI coils (body coil and head coil) in quick succession we were
261 able to obtain one baseline and three post-ingestive measurements of both gastric content and
262 CBF. To our knowledge this is the first paradigm to allow direct comparison of MRI
263 determined gastric content with neural activation. One effect of the introduction of water after
264 ingestion of the shake was that it did not mix into it (Figure 2). The data indicates that the
265 water ingested after the liquid food stimulus floats on top and empties relative quickly from
266 the stomach. This is in line with other work showing gastric sieving of low caloric watery
267 fluid while retaining more calorie-dense gastric content (Marciani et al., 2012).

268
269 In line with our hypotheses activation in the HV condition tended to be higher than that in the
270 LV condition, although the difference was not significant. This may imply that our
271 manipulation was not strong enough to invoke measurable treatment differences. Earlier
272 paradigms that did find a brain response to gastric distention (Maartje S. Spetter et al., 2014;
273 G. J. Wang et al., 2008) used a 500-mL load, however, larger volumes have also been used
274 (Ly et al., 2017). Ly et al. report activation due to distention induced by a balloon in the right

275 insula, but activation in this area decreased when a nutrient stimulus of the same volume was
276 infused.

277

278 Our results show activation in the opercular part of the inferior frontal gyrus, which has also
279 been shown to be associated with gastric stimulation with a liquid meal after a 36-h fast (Del
280 Parigi et al., 2002). Gut hormones such as cholecystinin, GLP-1, Peptide YY (PYY) and
281 ghrelin are known to affect brain activity (McLaughlin & McKie, 2016; Zanchi et al., 2017).
282 PYY has been implicated in regulating gastric emptying (Savage, Adrian, Carolan,
283 Chatterjee, & Bloom, 1987). Weise et al. report a positive correlation between plasma PYY
284 and right inferior frontal gyrus resting state CBF in the same region that we found responds to
285 distension (Weise, Thiyyagura, Reiman, Chen, & Krakoff, 2012). Interestingly, stable plasma
286 PYY levels have been shown after non-nutrient distention of the stomach (Oesch, Rüegg,
287 Fischer, Degen, & Beglinger, 2006), which is in line with work showing that PYY release is
288 mediated by caloric chime (Essah, Levy, Sistrun, Kelly, & Nestler, 2007). Future work may
289 strive to include PYY plasma measurements to investigate correlations with inferior frontal
290 gyral activation. Additionally, CCK and ghrelin would be interesting appetite hormones that
291 may help to understand associations between gastric distention and brain activity.

292

293 Our data show an increase and subsequent decrease in right anterior insula activity after
294 ingestion. There was greater insula activation for HV than for LV although this difference
295 was not significant. Anterior insula activation is associated with visceral and sensory
296 integration (Avery et al., 2017). E.g. the anterior insula is activated by pure gastric distention
297 with an intragastric balloon (G. J. Wang et al., 2008). Previous work has shown that
298 viscerosensation of the stomach tends to be associated with the right insula (Ladabaum,
299 Roberts, & McGonigle, 2007; Stephani, Fernandez-Baca Vaca, Maciunas, Koubeissi, &

300 Lüders, 2011; Vandenberghe et al., 2007). Our results are consistent with this, as we show
301 significant CBF changes within the right anterior insula over the course of our measurements.
302 However, though HV led to higher CBF values, we did not see the greatest CBF values
303 directly post ingestion which is the moment of greatest distention.

304
305 We scanned participants in a supine position; this position is different from real life where
306 gravity also affects gastric emptying, therefore fluid dispersion throughout the stomach may
307 be slower. Stimulating the antral gastric wall has been shown to be important in increasing
308 emptying contractions (Mizrahi, Ben Ya'acov, & Ilan, 2012), and antral stimulation may be
309 different due to the position of the gastric content relative to the body in a supine position.
310 However, in the literature a supine position is common for gastric MRI studies, and studies
311 which compared positions have found similar emptying (Steingoetter et al., 2006). Lastly, in a
312 within-subject design relative gastric emptying differences remain intact (Jones et al., 2006).

313
314 Gastric emptying is usually measured over a longer period of time, up to 180 minutes (Hoad
315 et al., 2004; Marciani et al., 2001; Marciani et al., 2012). Our data show that for this
316 combination of a liquid food stimulus and water, the difference in volume between LV and
317 HV declines from 250-300 mL to around 60 mL in the first 35 minutes. This shows that our
318 CBF measurement fell right into the period with the most divergent gastric volumes between
319 the treatments, indicating that with the current paradigm it should have been possible to detect
320 differences between CBF changes. However, the effect may have been too small to be
321 detectable in this sample.

322
323 Our paradigm allows concurrent measurement of gastric volume and brain activation. There
324 has been work showing different effects of gastric distention of a balloon versus the same

325 volume infused as a nutrient rich liquid (Geeraerts et al., 2011). However, there it was
326 unknown for how long the infused nutrients were retained in the stomach, and what the
327 volume of the gastric content was during the concomitant CBF measurements. Our work
328 opens up possibilities to use nutrient load and water combinations as a specific tool for
329 understanding the effect of gastric distention.

330

331 *Conclusions*

332 This study is the first to employ concurrent interleaved gastric MRI and CBF measurements.
333 Offering a large versus a small water load after a standardized meal significantly increases
334 gastric distention for over 35 minutes and suppresses appetite. A liquid meal with or without
335 an increased intragastric volume of 300 mL water do not differ enough to induce significantly
336 different CBF changes. However, this method is an easy and valid method to increase gastric
337 distention.

338

339

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343 made possible by Wageningen University Shared Research Facilities.

344

345 Conflicts of interest: none.

346

347 GC, MM, KG and PAMS designed the study, GC conducted the research, GC, PAMS and RV
348 performed the statistical analysis; GC wrote the paper. RV, MM, CdG and PAMS provided
349 feedback, PAMS had primary responsibility for final content.

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Tables

Table 1. Energy content and nutrient composition of the shake.

Ingredients, per 100g shake	
Protein powder, <i>g</i>	12.4
Cream, <i>g</i>	20.8
Dextrin-maltose, <i>g</i>	21.9
Vanilla sugar, <i>g</i>	3.3
Water, <i>g</i>	41.6
Total, <i>g</i>	100
Nutrients, per 100g shake	
Energy ¹ , <i>kJ</i>	1,393
Carbohydrates, <i>g</i>	40
Of which mono- and disaccharides	7
Fat, <i>g</i>	10
Of which saturated	7
Protein, <i>g</i>	20
Fiber, <i>g</i>	1.7
Total ingested	
Shake weight, <i>g</i>	241
Shake volume ² , <i>mL</i>	150
Shake energy, <i>kJ (kcal)</i>	2,093 (500)

¹Nutrient composition of the shake resembles a mixed meal, with 50% of the energy load coming from carbohydrates, 30% from fats and 20% from protein.

²The shakes for the two treatments were completely similar, but followed by either 50 mL of water (LV) or 350 mL of water (HV), making total consumed volume 200 mL or 500 mL.

Table 2. Whole brain analysis of LV and HV in 19 healthy men¹

Area	k ²	MNI ³			Z	P _{fwe}
		x	y	z		
Inferior frontal gyrus - opercular part L	938	-57	17	22	5.49	0.001
Inferior frontal gyrus - triangular part L		-51	38	7	5.16	0.006
Inferior frontal gyrus - orbital part L		-51	35	-5	5.02	0.012
Inferior frontal gyrus - triangular part R	319	54	29	22	4.81	0.031
Middle frontal gyrus R		48	38	22	4.76	0.039
Anterior insula R		36	14	-11	4.53	0.101

¹ Main effect of time in a 2 x 4 full factorial model with treatment and time as factors, L stands for left hemisphere, R for right hemisphere. ²cluster size in number of voxels. ³Voxel coordinates in Montreal Neurological Institute space.

Figure legends

Figure 1.

Overview of one experimental session for one participant.

Figure 2.

MRI images of transverse slices at the height of the liver, shortly after ingestion of the shake.

Left: original images. Right: the same slices as shown on the left but with the gastric content delineated manually based on signal strength as indicated by colorization. Water yields high signal in a T₂-weighted scan, and therefore appears bright. A bright watery layer can be observed above the nutrient rich layer. In the HV image the nutrient rich fraction has been marked with an S and the water fraction with a W. In Supplemental Figure 2 an in vitro example of the SEPARATE condition with similar layering can be seen.

Figure 3.

Hunger, fullness, prospective consumption, desire to eat and thirst plotted over time. There were significant differences between treatments for all appetite measures (n = 19).

Figure 4.

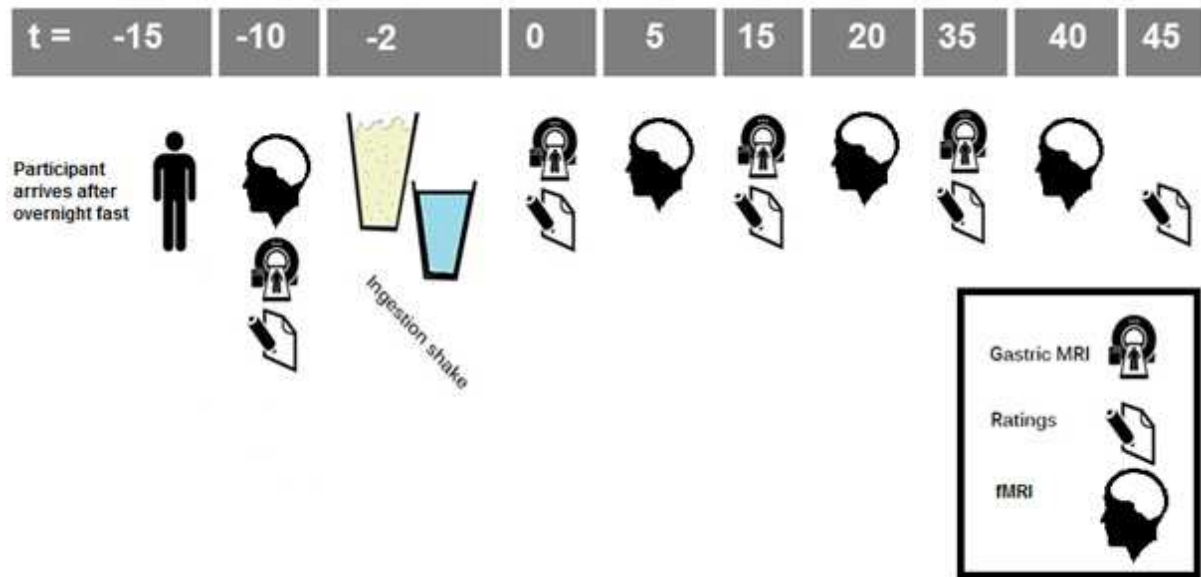
TGV plotted over time. TGV was significantly greater for HV in comparison to LV. TGV at all three time points was significantly different between the treatments (n = 19).

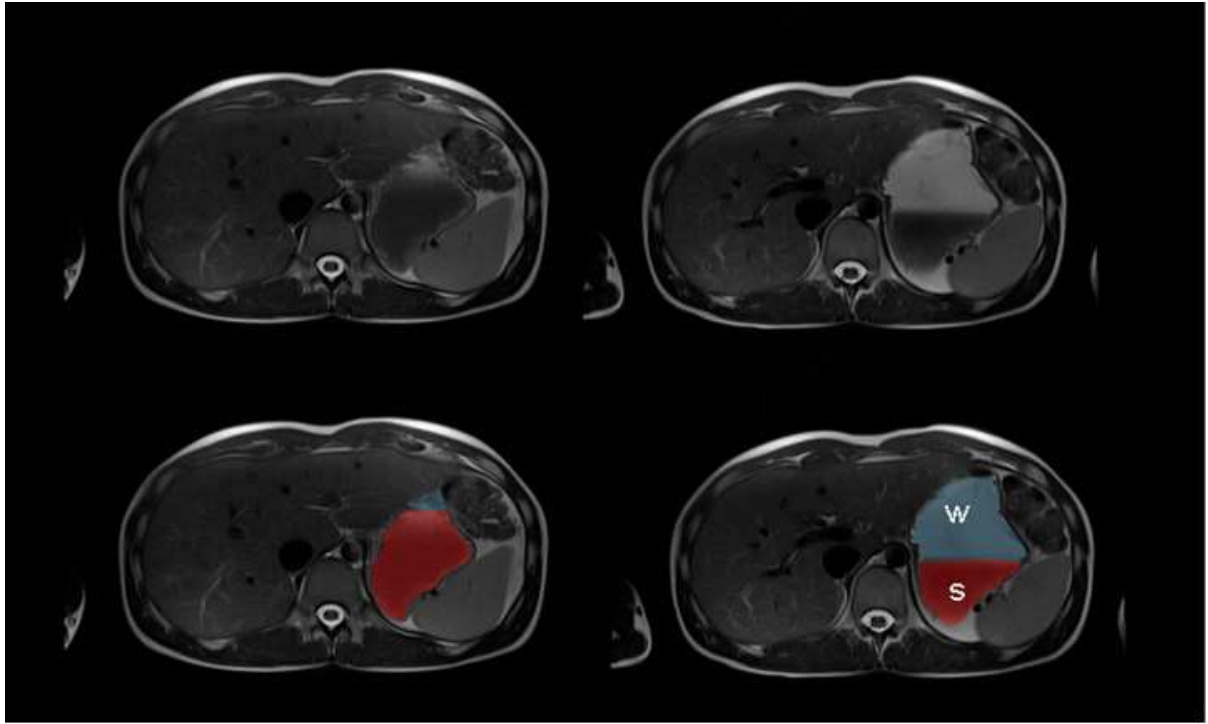
Figure 5.

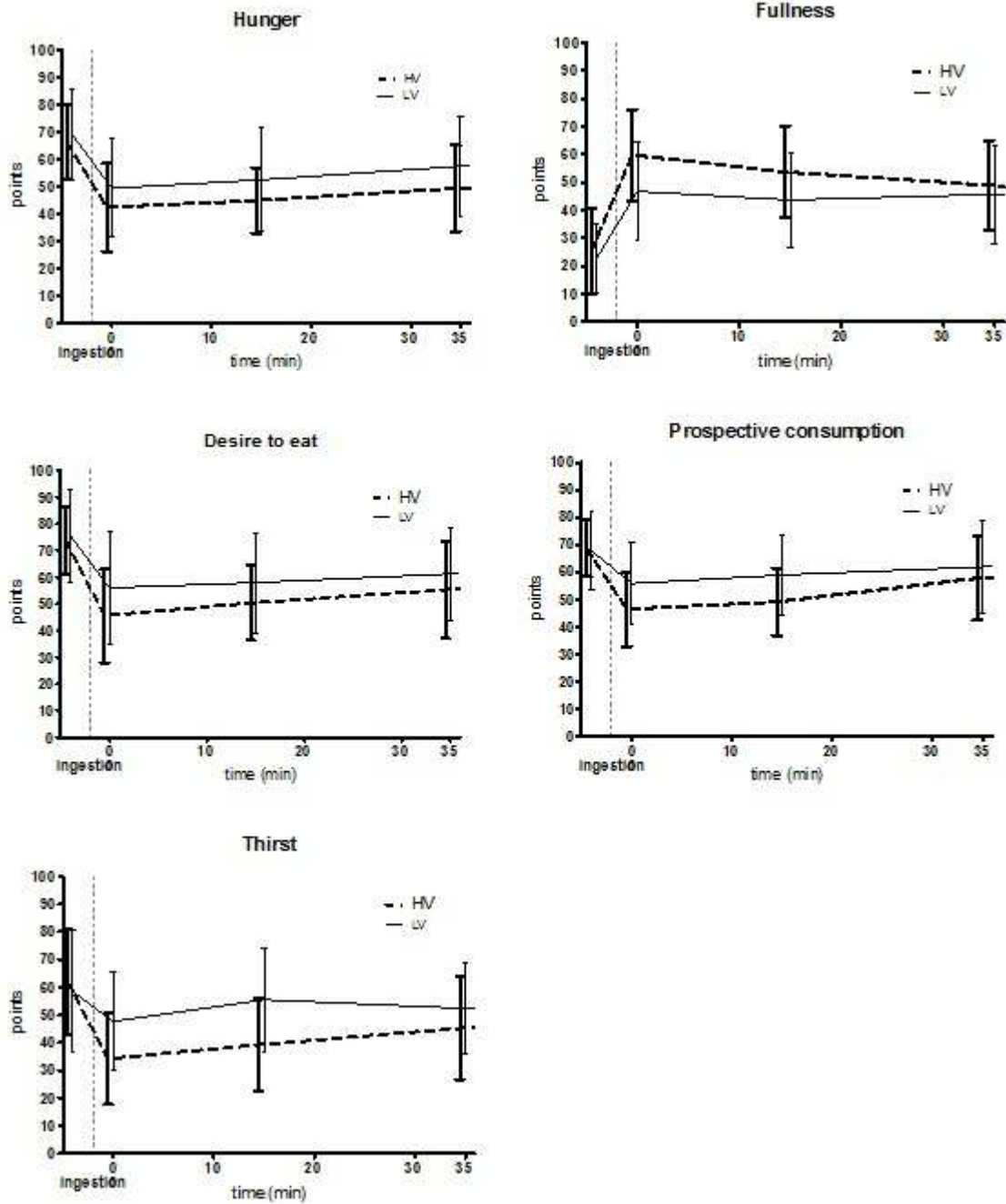
TGV plotted over time, as well as difference between the individual layers within the stomach (n = 19).

Figure 6.

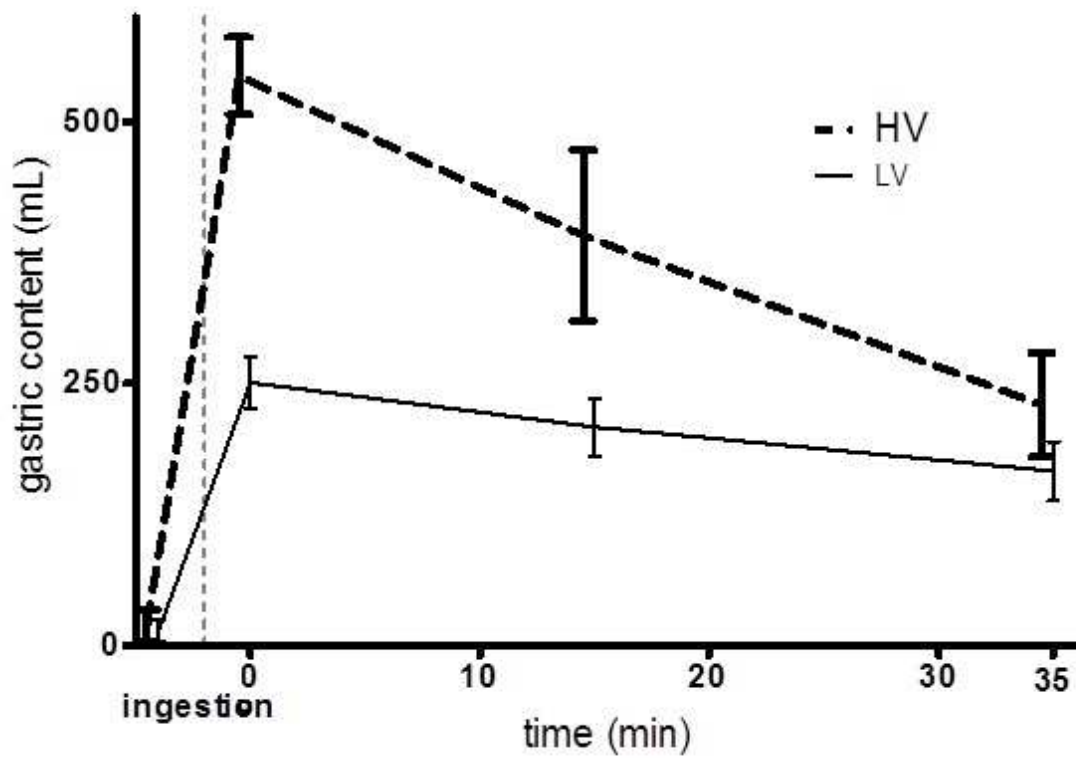
Color coded F-map of the main effect of time overlaid onto study population mean anatomical image ($F = 5.72$ corresponds to $p = 0.001$). In the graph: percent CBF deviation from baseline per treatment over time for the bilateral inferior frontal gyrus – triangular part ($y = 38$) and the right anterior insula ($y = 14$) ($n = 19$).



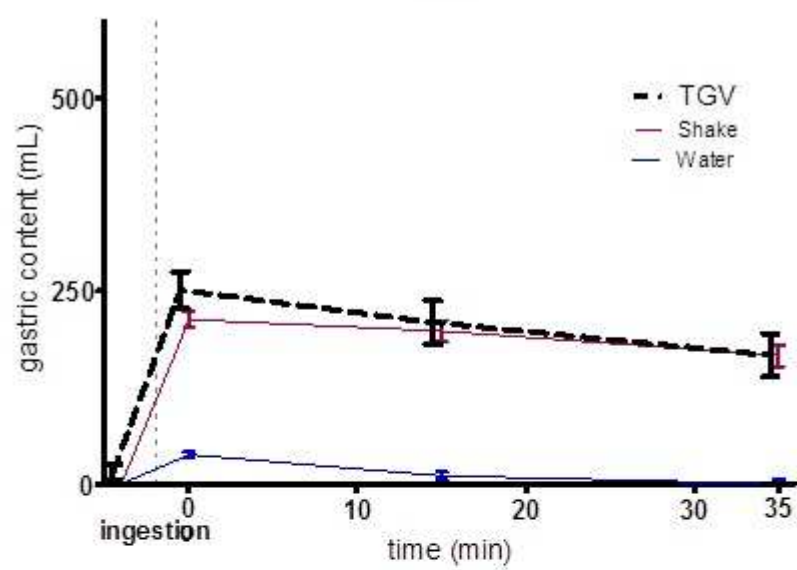




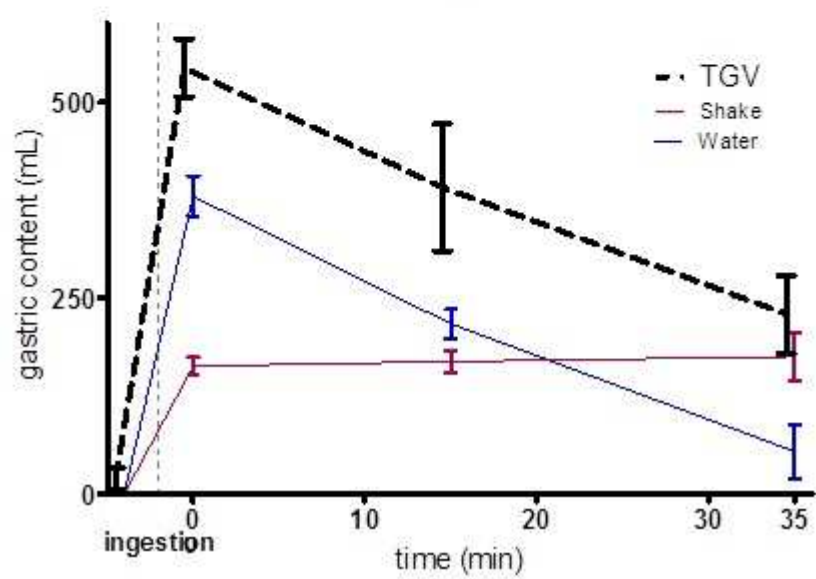
Gastric emptying

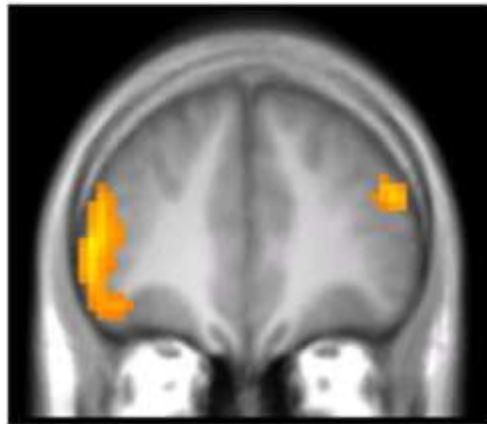


LV



HV

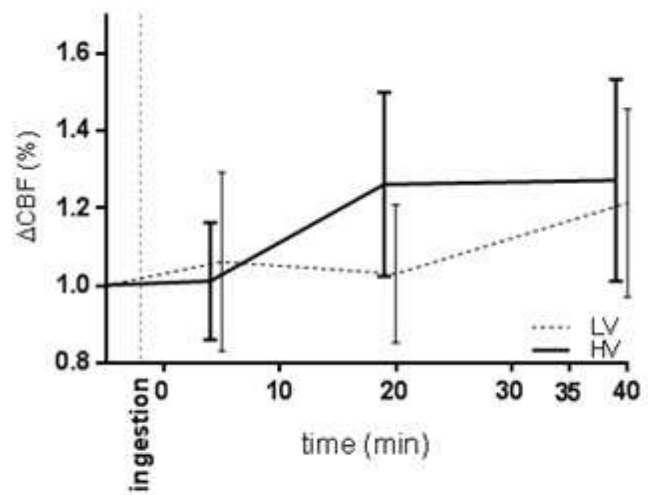




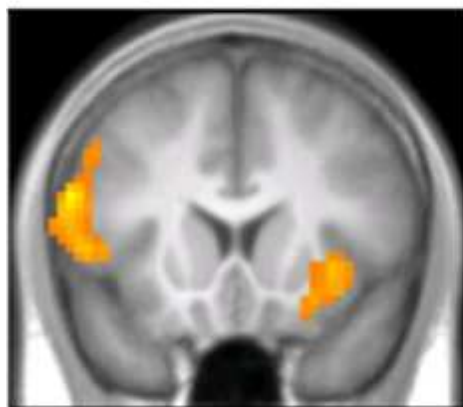
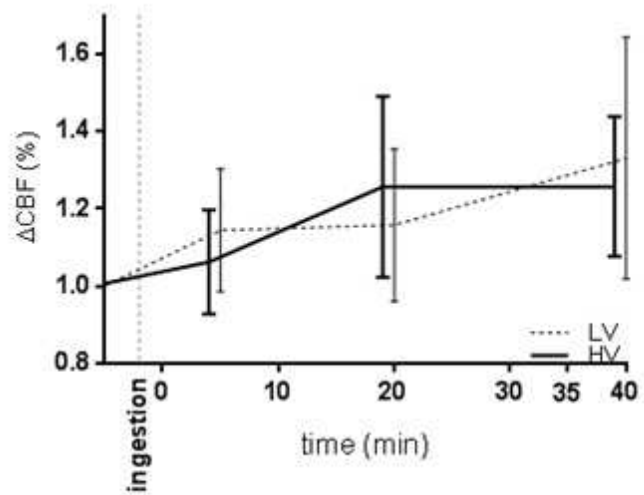
F = 5.72

F = 14.76

R IFG - triangular part



L IFG - triangular part



F = 5.72

F = 14.76

R Insula

